

Land policy REVIEW

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UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE
BUREAU OF AGRICULTURAL ECONOMICS



Contributors

Editorial Note: RURAL YOUNG PEOPLE both in and out of the armed forces will inherit tough and persistent problems. Can we prepare them better for wrestling with the solutions? This question gains urgency as the normal school year opens.

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SHERMAN JOHNSON, in spite of being deep in his work as Head of the Division of Farm Management and Costs of the BAE and National Activity Leader in problems relating to production adjustments, takes time to make some vigorous recommendations in regard to our rural schools.

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DAVID MEEKER has since resigned as Director, Office of Surplus Property and Reconversion, USDA.

W. F. WATKINS was Chairman of the Committee on Fertilizers, Combined Food Board and Combined Raw Materials Board, WFA, until July 1, when he left for Shrivenham, England, where he is Agronomy Instructor at Army University Study Center No. 1.

BRISTOW ADAMS, who is known across the country as *B.A.* and may be called the dean of agricultural college editors and teachers of journalism, was recently designated as Professor Emeritus at Cornell University.

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The REVIEW rejoices that many phrases in this issue have been made obsolete by the termination of the war.

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What Farmers Want from their Rural Schools

By ARTHUR RAPER. *Here is a summary of a field study by trained social scientists in 32 representative counties merged with some observations by the author.*



THERE ARE stirrings among the farmers as they think of their schools.

Almost nowhere are they wholly satisfied, or wholly dissatisfied, with what they now have. Where schools are small, there are nearly always those who want them consolidated into larger units; where they have been consolidated, some farmers lament the decline of neighborhood activities that followed the closing of the one-teacher schools.

Rural schools are responsive to certain local conditions. They vary with taxable wealth, with types of administration, and perhaps most of all with the divergent ideas of the farmers themselves about what they want from their schools.

The very fact that farmers want the schools above all else to train their children for life causes diversity rather than uniformity among rural schools. Most farmers in some areas, and some farmers in almost any local district, want the schools to prepare their boys and girls to live

on farms, or at least not to educate them away from the farms. Other farmers want the schools to help train their children to make a living off the farm, if necessary. Some parents, especially transient farm laborers and lower-income cotton tenants, are generally expected to have their children work in the peak seasons. The parents may simply take them out of school, or the schools may arrange split sessions so the children will be available when their work is needed.

But most numerous in nearly all parts of the country are the parents who want the schools to help prepare their children to choose between farm life and off-the-farm life, and if for life off the farm then for a considerable range of livelihood choices. Rural parents are well aware that many of the young people who grow up on farms must move off to the urban centers, and so they want the schools to help prepare them for this strange new life away from home.

Professions stand high among practically all farm people, and many parents hope that at least some of their children will become lawyers, doctors, preachers, or teachers. Broadly speaking, immigrant farm parents most want their children to remain on the farm, while old-line American parents are most anxious that their children have at least the basic training for a wide range of occupations.

Repair Shops

Community services from their rural schools are wanted by farmers generally. This wish is widespread, though it is most marked in low-income farm areas. The launching shortly before the war of the National Defense Training courses in areas long characterized by much underemployment demonstrated to parents there just how the schools could contribute toward widening the occupational opportunities for their children.

When representative farmers in 32 scattered counties throughout the country were asked some months ago whether they wanted farm-machinery repair shops at schools after the war, two-thirds of them said they did. The largest proportions wanting such shops lived in the South where farm machinery is lightest, where the most defense training courses had been given, and where the most repair shops at schools had been set up. In the Northern Plains and the West Coast fewer farmers wanted them, for there the machinery is heavier, defense training courses and school shops were fewer, and experienced mechanics are plentiful, except in wartime. Even so, in every major region half or more of

the farmers wanted the schools to maintain farm-machinery repair shops after the war.

Farmers not in favor of the school shops sometimes said the school was too small, or the shop equipment was too expensive, or that "stingy farmers would use them too much," or that they offered unfair competition to private industry, especially local repairmen. A few farmers bluntly said they didn't see any sense in "kids monkeying around" with tractors, that there was no need for a repair shop at school. Most farmers, however, like the idea of as many boys as possible—and girls too in many places—getting acquainted with tractors and other farm machinery. Some wanted the school shops even though they themselves do not expect to make use of them. In such areas as the Plains, where tractor drivers and combine operators are recruited from the towns, many farmers would like to see farm-machinery repair shops at the town schools, too.

Farmers who have used the school repair shops speak of their satisfaction in getting a better understanding of their own equipment, and of knowing that they can mend it. Some said they have their machinery in better repair now than ever before. That father and son can work together in the school shop was often appreciated.

Canneries

Schools should operate canneries after the war for the convenience of farm families, said more than half of the farmers interviewed. Replies differed widely by regions—85 per cent of the Southern farmers said they wanted them, in the Midwest

and West Coast slightly less than one-third, in New England only one-fourth. This larger proportion of Southern farmers seems to be accounted for mainly by the relative absence of commercial canneries in the area, the low traditional emphasis on home canning there with the resulting dearth of home-canning equipment, and the installation of more wartime school canneries in the South than in any other part of the country. Southern farmers and their families have used the canneries, they like them, and they want them made permanent to stabilize the increase in home-grown foods achieved during the war.

Competition with private industry was often offered as an objection to school canneries, especially in the Northeast and West Coast vegetable-growing areas where commercial custom canneries operate. There was less mention of this competition, however, than in the case of the school repair shops. Most States have made some arrangements for the continuation of school canneries and repair shops.

Hot Lunches

Four farmers out of five said they wanted the hot-lunch program continued in the schools after the war. The highest proportion saying Yes was in the South, and in every region it was well over half. A few said they preferred to have their children take lunches from home, and some thought that the local school was too small for the lunch program to be practicable. But the vast majority wanted hot lunches served permanently. They pointed out that every child would then be assured of at least one good meal a

Survival

Any order which hopes to survive must ultimately appeal to the minds of men.

—HARRY S. TRUMAN

day, that it was less trouble than to send lunch from home, and that it was the best way for the children to have a wholesome meal when at school. Most farmers believe that hot lunches are here to stay. At least 21 States now have special funds from State sources to facilitate school lunches.

Libraries

School libraries are generally popular. Two-thirds of the farmers said they would like to have a school library and to have it expanded to serve the adults in the school district. Practically all who had access to the larger schools wanted this expansion, as did many in the one-teacher districts, though they often said that their schools were now too small to make this feasible. A few farmers expressed opposition because of the added expense, or were afraid the "right kind of books" would not be used, and now and then a man insisted that most farm people have precious little time to read books and are not much interested anyway.

Buildings Open

School buildings should be available for community activities after hours, according to four-fifths of the farmers. Many, however, pointed out that special care would be needed

to protect the school property, and that the building should be used only for activities that are open to all the people in the school district.

And—

Farmers nearly everywhere apparently support the health activities in the schools. They encourage their children to participate in 4-H Club and F. F. A. projects, and like especially the work of the vocational teachers. Art and music courses are appreciated nearly everywhere they are given, according to these responses. The school plays attract large night audiences, and many people leave their work for field days, ball games, and commencements.

Their Own Schools

Farmers want the rural schools to be their own, their very own. They want to keep up with what goes on, know their child's teacher personally, and be able to have their wishes count in rehiring her if she suits, or replacing her if she does not. Next after their own homes, farmers are likely to look upon the school as their most basic social institution. Having a part in the operation and control of the public schools is for many rural parents their own best evidence that they live in a democracy.

But most farmers also want the schools to render community services that can be provided only by larger school units, which by their very size and distance reduce the direct control by the individual farm family. Many are conscious of this paradox. Two-thirds of the farmers interviewed in the 32 counties and half or more in every major region said they

Seedbed

The public school system is the agency through which the democratic state undertakes to perpetuate itself.

—LISTER HILL

favor the further consolidation of schools. There was a rather close correspondence between the present degree of consolidation and the proportion of the farmers favoring it. The exception was found among the Southern Negroes who, with little personal experience with consolidation but with first-hand observation of the local white consolidated schools, almost unanimously favored it.

Farmers who oppose consolidation do so mainly because they look upon the local one- and two-teacher school as the core of their cherished neighborhood activities. "When you close a district school" said a farmer, "you give that community a slap in the face." But most farmers think the objections on the whole are outweighed by the better educational advantages for their children and the additional services for the rural community. The real challenge the farmers now face is to help the school authorities to establish the kind of rural schools that render the educational and community services they want, and that at the same time are reasonably responsive to their wishes for democratic community control.

Training Rural Youth for Farm and Other Occupations

By SHERMAN JOHNSON. *This statement is a layman's view of the need for reorienting the training of rural youth with suggestions as to methods. It is a spontaneous expression of fermenting thought and observation.*



MANY returning war veterans, workers in war industry, and rural youth are considering farming as a vocation. This current interest in farming as a life occupation underlines the need for greater understanding of at least four phases of future agricultural life. They are summarized as (1) the potential opportunities in farming over a period of years, (2) the number of workers likely to be needed in agriculture after the war, (3) the training and background that is almost essential for successful management of a family farm, and (4) the kind of training needed by those who will find it desirable to seek employment outside of agriculture.

We should not expect most of our rural youth to stay on farms. This is the inescapable conclusion to be drawn from the technological advances in agriculture, the increasingly competitive nature of farming, the relatively high rural birth rate, the outlook for markets for agricultural products which are always more circumscribed than the markets for industrial production, and the future employment opportunities in agriculture. A large portion of these young people should be encouraged

to seek other kinds of work. Of those not brought up on farms only the very few who have special aptitudes for farming should be encouraged to consider it as a life occupation.

This raises the question of the kind of training that should be provided to guide rural youth into occupations for which they have special aptitudes—training that will serve as the basis for choice, and that will be most helpful in entering the kind of vocations for which they are best adapted. But training by itself is not effective. It needs to be combined with guidance into the occupations that have the most promising employment outlook, and eventually with assistance in finding employment or business opportunities. The training step seems to be so neglected in discussions of agricultural policy that the following remarks are ventured in the hope that they will create interest in this fundamental question.

First of all, it is assumed that public responsibility for training rural youth extends at least sufficiently far to provide opportunities for a high-school education. This means considerable extension of present educational facilities in many parts of

the country. One of the reasons for population pressure in the isolated, poor-land areas is lack of the kind of educational opportunity which should provide training for other lines of work, and a knowledge of potential jobs in other parts of the country. Good roads and good schools can furnish avenues of escape from congested, low-income farming areas.

Revamped Courses

But high schools organized on the traditional pattern will not adequately train our youth to choose the occupations for which they are best adapted. In a new approach, perhaps the first 2 years of high-school training could be organized somewhat along traditional lines. Then the last 2 years could be revamped to bring out special aptitudes of the students, and these 2 years could be speeded up to cover as much work in a 6-month term as is now covered in the 9-month term. This would leave 6 months open for apprenticeship training in certain occupations, with compensation in accordance with student contribution to output. These would be trial apprenticeships in the sense that students would have an opportunity to test their aptitudes in the fields they were considering as a life occupation.

Apprenticeships

Such apprenticeship training would be closely supervised and reported on by supervisors responsible to the educational system. In other words, certain factories, stores, professional offices, and farms would be certified for apprenticeship training, and students would be placed in ap-

prenticeship positions for 6 months of each year, for 2 years. It would be necessary to provide residential centers or approved living quarters in homes.

Within the opportunities available for such apprenticeship, the student should be given wide leeway in his choice of work. Supervision could be organized at least on a State-wide basis so the student would not be limited to the occupations available to him in the area immediately surrounding his own high school. Those students who are especially interested in farming as a vocation would choose to serve their apprenticeship on farms. An approach to farm apprenticeship is discussed later.

If apprenticeship training were available in a number of vocations, students would have a chance to test their aptitudes. They should be permitted to change their apprenticeship to some other occupation if at the end of the first year they had found they were not adapted for the work in their first choice.

Not Narrow

The high-school curriculum for the last 2 years should be so organized that students with special interests along certain lines could take courses that would assist them in entering particular vocations, but a strictly vocational curriculum should be avoided. High-school training of the kind described need not, and should not, confine itself to narrow vocational training. It should be organized to develop latent aptitudes for all the vocations—including the growing field of service occupations in our mechanized world. Students need to learn that management of business enterprise, whether in farm-

ing or industry, is more and more complex, and requires a higher and higher type of native ability, and more and more training for success in its undertaking.

Aptitudes

The reorganized high-school program would recognize that among any large group of boys and girls there is a wide range in natural talent and aptitudes—in ability to work with the head and the hands. Some are naturally endowed with ability to work with their hands, and to develop a high degree of mechanical skill, but are not well fitted to work only with their heads on problems that to them seem abstract and unimportant. Others have little knack for mechanical work, but find their greatest interest in the courses that seem abstract and unreal to those who are mechanically minded.

Scholarships

More than a high-school education is required to provide necessary training in many occupations. The national interest in a well-trained citizenship seems to justify special scholarships for the best adapted and most promising high-school graduates who could not otherwise obtain further training. These scholarships might provide either for college or for further vocational training in agriculture or other occupation. Scholarship arrangements of this kind for those of outstanding ability would open the door of opportunity to many who would not otherwise become fully trained for their life work.

In the war period the Nation has found it necessary and desirable to train young men and women for

war. It should be equally desirable to provide adequate training for peacetime pursuits.

Training for Farming

Technological improvements in farming have enlarged the potentialities of family farms. With the mechanical equipment now available the farm family can operate a larger farm than was formerly possible—larger both in area and in output. Sometimes improved practices which result in larger output per acre are as important as increasing the number of acres. This enlargement of the scope of the family farm means a chance to earn more satisfactory incomes if capable management is provided.

But the farm family without competent management, or without ability to obtain adequate capital to operate a larger business, is at a greater disadvantage than ever before. Thus technological improvement has widened the gap in income between the small, low-efficiency, subsistence farm and the larger, efficiently operated family farm. These developments make adequate training essential to success in farming. This is especially true in areas where the type and size of farms should be changed in order to keep up with the changing times.

If the high-school curriculum for rural areas is revised in accordance with these suggestions, the high-school students who are especially interested in farming as a vocation would undertake apprenticeship work on approved farms during the last 2 years of their high-school course. The student might be permitted to select his home farm for this training; but in many instances

it might be desirable to suggest a change to some other farm for apprenticeship work. It is assumed that the excellent training provided under the present 4-H Club program would be continued, but this work could be broadened to provide activities for those who are looking forward to careers outside of agriculture.

Following graduation from high school and farm-apprenticeship training, further opportunities in the field of agriculture might be provided for the most promising students. Scholarships might be granted for the best students to attend agricultural colleges. For those who had successfully completed their apprenticeship work and who wanted to enter farming immediately, financial credit and other assistance might be provided to get started in farming. Training of this kind would enable the rural youth who choose farming as a life occupation to keep up with the march of technology. It therefore would facilitate farming progress. This in turn would benefit the Nation as a whole.

Other Occupations

Gates of opportunity in other occupations should be opened for the many rural youth who are not needed on farms. The entire national economy should function in such a way that other employment is available and that no artificial barriers hinder new recruits in any occupation. Rural youth should be informed about the most promising vocations, and employment offices should be located in rural areas to acquaint them with job opportunities elsewhere.

Remedy

I know no safe depository of the ultimate powers of society but the people themselves; and if we think them not enlightened enough to exercise their control with a wholesome discretion, the remedy is not to take it from them, but to inform their discretion by education.

—THOMAS JEFFERSON

As we develop increased efficiency both in agriculture and in industry less work will be required to produce both food and gadgets. There will be more time for other things, including recreation and increased leisure; and more workers can shift to service occupations. More workers will be called on to service complex appliances—in both urban and rural areas. There is urgent need for development of service enterprises in rural areas. In part, these enterprises substitute for work that was formerly done on the farms. But aside from making and servicing gadgets, and producing and distributing food, more time and more workers will be available for the medical and teaching professions, the arts, recreation, and the other things that really make life worth living. Through more adequate vocational guidance, both rural and urban youth should become aware of these life opportunities in an expanding economy. And education and training should be provided that will make it possible for them to utilize these opportunities.

Study by Rural Veterans: The Rural Community's Part

By CHARL ORMOND WILLIAMS. *After intensive county, State, and National experience with education and people, the Director of Field Service of the N. E. A. centers attention on the rural community's part in seeing that veterans have a fair chance to make use of their educational rights. She says there is no time for delay.*



MANY FACTORS will influence the ultimate number of service men who continue their education after the war. Other urges will be stronger: the urge to marry and establish a home; the desire for "a good job"; the desire to support or contribute to the support of his family; the desire for complete relaxation and leisure after long strain and regimentation; the desire just to be let alone. According to prognosticators, 80 to 90 percent of those in the armed services will slip back into their places without benefit of educational agencies.

Of the near 15 million who will be veterans of this war, more than 60 percent will not be qualified for college entrance, more than 30 percent have had only an eighth-grade education. Nearly half a million are without fourth-grade schooling.

Much has been written about the veteran as a college student. Experts who are studying the situation are convinced that the more schooling the veteran has, the more he is likely to seek at war's end. But by far the bigger problem and the more challenging is with the two-thirds who cannot qualify for college en-

trance. It is a problem that, as one writer points out, offers great possibilities as the necessary wedge in breaking the vicious circle of acceptedly low educational standards.

A group of more than a hundred representatives of departments and agencies of the Federal Government and Nation-wide organizations met last February at the headquarters of the National Education Association to discuss the problems arising under the GI Bill of Rights, in connection with veterans below college level. The purpose of the conference as explained by the chairman, Dr. Howard A. Dawson, NEA Director of Rural Service, was not to commit agencies or individuals but to assemble facts and ideas and to come to some common agreement. In opening the conference, Dr. Dawson said: "The two-thirds of the veterans whom we might call undereducated (or who at least haven't had desirable educational opportunities) are that way just because they come from places where educational opportunities haven't been available. I don't know whether all of you know that or not, but I know it is true."

For decades, when those of us who are interested in equality of educa-

tional opportunity in the United States have wrestled with illiteracy and prevalent low educational standards, our eyes have invariably fallen on the rural communities of the Nation. Wars have etched the situation deeply. With the statistics regarding the draft at hand, we can see more clearly the relationship between economic level and low educational level; facilities and accomplishment; social acceptance and motivation. Service men who had not before found the lack of reading and writing skills a particular liability, have felt the need for them even in simple tasks and in their desire for communication with family and friends.

Mostly Rural

As the great proportion of the veterans are shown to be undereducated and as the great proportions of these undereducated are from rural districts, the problem of veteran education is in great part a rural problem. Many organizations and agencies can and must cooperate on the National and State level, but the real accomplishment of aims will depend on cooperation on the local level and on the use of local agencies. In the words of the old maxim, "To be alive, it must be local."

The Veterans' Administration, which is charged with administering the provisions of the GI Bill, cannot itself initiate or operate educational or training programs of any kind, nor exercise supervision or control over any educational or training institutions. This limitation applies to other Federal departments and agencies. No administrative machinery has been provided

to see that States do the job uniformly.

Whose Job?

This bill merely presents the opportunity for the veterans. To existing educational agencies, and to veterans' welfare groups in the State and in local communities, belongs the job of seeing that the offerings are there for the veteran's taking, and that he has guidance when it is needed.

Under Public Law 346, known as the GI Bill, every qualified veteran may obtain financial assistance for from one to four years of education, comprising an amount for tuition, books, supplies up to \$500 per school year, and living expenses of \$50 per month or \$75 if he has dependents. But the veteran himself must take the initiative in obtaining this aid, which is administered by the Veterans' Administration and its 52 regional offices.

As yet no satisfactory plan has been developed for financing the educational facilities for veterans needing additional elementary or secondary schooling. It is one thing to provide money for the veteran to go to school; it is quite another thing to provide the school facilities the veteran may need.

Overhead Action

Nevertheless, efforts toward coordination are in progress. Governors have appointed committees, legislatures have appropriated sums, education departments have assembled in pamphlet form lists of approved institutions and information on educational facilities, State departments and colleges are develop-

ing bases to evaluate the veteran's educational achievement.

Legislation and State plans for veterans' education are fluid and they sometimes change overnight. Nor is the Federal picture static. In May, a dozen bills before Congress sought to amend the GI Bill of Rights.

In an effort to learn just what is being done to facilitate veterans' education, the Educational Research Service of the National Education Association asked superintendents for statements (1) describing the efforts of their school systems in behalf of veterans and (2) mentioning the chief impediments and difficulties which seem to be hampering these efforts.

Present Activities

The March 1945 circular of ERS summarizes 106 replies to the questionnaire. In small cities and counties, the present activities concern:

1. A local business-and-education inquiry committee.

2. Teacher study of provisions of the GI Bill and preparation for counseling.

3. Coordination of school services with the Veterans' Administration, the Selective Service Board, the U. S. Employment Service, the Bureau of Vocational Rehabilitation, the Red Cross, the Veterans' Welfare Board, or other groups offering help to returning servicemen.

4. Designation of one person as coordinator or counselor to have supervision of educational work for veterans.

5. Questionnaires and letters to servicemen or questionnaires in newspapers to learn postwar wishes or plans and to encourage veterans to finish courses.

6. Expansion of adult education courses and vocational courses, correspondence courses, part-time courses, in anticipation of veterans' wishes.

Call for Centers

The great problem is the development of centers in rural or semi-rural areas that will provide adequate equipment and competent teaching to meet wishes and needs of servicemen. Public vocational schools, which did an excellent job in development of quick and effective war-training programs, must recast their curriculums to provide peace training programs.

Too, these schools and the general public school of the rural areas must provide a wide range of choice in part-time adult courses, not just for the veterans but for the entire community. Adult education activity has increased during the last few years. Its importance can hardly be over-emphasized.

Each local community will need to investigate the situation within its State and within its region and township. What coordinating committee has been set up by the Governor or other official? What institutions have been approved by the State department of education? What financial aid has been provided by legislation within the State? Is there a coordinator of veterans' education for the State? Where is the nearest regional office of the Veterans' Administration? What facilities are there within the community for the returning veterans?

As a concrete example, Bob and Alton are servicemen from a Southern rural community. Bob is an able mechanic, had his own shop before

the war, has been doing similar work as a member of SeaBees. He has spent hard years in Alaska. Alton, an odd-job youngster, has become a sergeant in the Army. Bob, the mechanic, married young but has no children. Alton, the sergeant, is unmarried. Neither finished more than the eighth grade.

In their community there is only a two-teacher school, and the educational level is no higher than that represented by Alton and Bob. The nearest high school is 5 miles away; the junior college, 10 miles. Within a radius of 50 miles are several colleges.

Bob, a good mechanic in the beginning, has continued that work and will have increased his skill. He will come back to his own shop if he can revive it, to a wife from whom he has been separated for weary years. All he will want, likely, is to be left alone. And, if so, the community can perform its best service by saying, "Hello, Bob," and allowing him to go in peace.

Alton may want the same thing, and, if so, again, the community's best service is to accept him casually, make him "belong" again, and not bore him with uplift. But Alton has been a top sergeant, accustomed to command. Will he be satisfied with odd-jobs now, the unskilled tasks for which his former schooling fitted him? Can he find a school that will give him what he needs?

Own Decision

Obviously only Alton can make his decision about what he will do. The community can gather information for him, put it before him, let him make his own choice without promptings.

How Proceed?

With practically no knowledge on the subject, how can this rural community go about making preparation for the return of Alton and Bob and its other boys?

It might proceed along the following lines:

1. Bring together in a small informal group a few representatives of interested agencies: Educational authorities, the draft board, the Veterans' Administration, leaders of the community in other phases of work. The people concerned should make use of existing community organization: If there is a community council, it should form a nucleus, or the entire veterans' education work might logically be a project of the council.

2. Organize to gather information: Find the answers to those questions about State and regional offices relating to veterans. Then write letters to the State superintendent of education, to the State veterans' representative if there is one, to the nearest regional office of the Veterans' Administration; interview any near representatives of these groups, particularly the nearest veterans' vocational adviser; write to their United States Congressman for copies of the GI Bill of Rights and any amendments to it, and copies of any other bills that may be outstanding in the field of veterans' welfare; by correspondence or interview find out what is being done in the State in making plans for the return of veterans—in the way of devising objective tests, locating part-time work, providing correspondence courses and special adult classes. General materials are available from the U. S. Department of Agriculture, the U. S. Office of

Education, the National Education Association, Office of War Information—all of Washington, D. C.

Ask Them

3. Make a list of the community's servicemen and their mailing addresses. Begin now to (1) tell them what you are doing and give them the results of your investigations and (2) ask them if they have postwar plans and suggestions. Perhaps the typing classes in school could mimeograph the letters to go out. A simple questionnaire might be developed:

Do you plan to continue your old job when you return?

Do you want to go into a new field?

In either case, do you have any hopes and plans for further education?

If so, how would you like to continue it: full time? part time? by correspondence?

What particular study or studies do you want to pursue?

Do you want these at your local school?

If not, do you now have a choice of school?

To this questionnaire might be added a few explanations: "This questionnaire, of course, does not commit you in any way. The GI Bill, as you have been hearing, provides help under certain conditions for the veteran to continue or further his education. If this problem seems too far removed from your present difficult days for you to answer, we will understand. But we are eager to work now, if possible, to promote the kind of help you would like, in order that you may find what you wish on your return."

Without consultation with Bob and Alton, we can enumerate a few of the things they will not want:

1. They are adults. They not only will not want to, but they will not, sit in the usual public school classes with children who are only a half or a third their age.

2. They will not be motivated by wishes relating to the distant future. They will want immediate as well as long-time good from the sacrifice of their time in study. They will want education to contribute directly and tangibly to their problems.

3. Those with insight enough to want to continue their study will have felt an intensification of the value of time, with the sacrifice they have already made. Veterans not only of battles but of army educational services, they will not be patient with time-wasting and poor teaching. They will want to skip the nonessentials, have adult approaches. And they will want to have credit given them for the achievements and learning of their service years—they will want tests that can adequately measure what they have learned.

Let's Remember

Those who have worked with returned combat veterans have found neither great cynicism nor high idealism. Instead they are a matter-of-fact, business-like group of men who want to hurry about the business of getting a start in life. When Bob and Alton do come marching home—along with nearly 15 million others—it will be too late to set up counseling units, to try to expand education systems to receive the extra numbers, to adjust knowledge and instruction to their mature outlook. The time is now.

Surplus War Material to IMPROVE RURAL LIVING

By DAVID MEEKER. Huge war surpluses are gradually coming on the market. Many of the items are valuable to farm families for use on their farms, in their homes, and in their communities—and land itself is included. The Government has taken care that farmers shall have a chance to buy at controlled prices. These pages suggest some of the items, show how they can be used efficiently, and sketch methods by which they are being placed within the reach of farmers. Distance will necessarily eliminate some of the surpluses from our use but vast quantities will be on sale.



WITH THE WAR in Europe ended, and the war in the Pacific now in the mopping-up stage, the vast scrapheap of surplus military material grows bigger and bigger, and the problem of its disposal becomes pressing. Items in this pile roughly include surplus land, surplus industrial plants, and surplus stores in wide variety. Practically everybody in the country can find something in this pile that he needs or can use and probably no group of citizens will find more things likely to be of service to them than the farm families.

First, there is the matter of surplus military lands. Some of the land acquired by the Army and Navy during the last few years is not suitable for farming, and postwar demands may prevent the armed services from turning back some of the recently acquired land. But, it is estimated that about 3,500,000 acres of good soil will be returned to private use

which could be so divided as to form perhaps several thousand farms and ranches.

Manufacturing plants, built to meet the demands imposed by the war form another class of surplus property. There are many of them. Some can be used to meet, directly, the needs of agriculture. Take fertilizer for instance. At the beginning of both World Wars, our farmers faced shortages of nitrogen fertilizer. Since the start of the war, nine synthetic ammonia plants have been built for the manufacture of explosives. At least a part of the capacity of these plants might be diverted to the manufacture of nitrogen fertilizer as the war draws toward a close.

Finally, there is the vast quantity of stores and equipment, including almost everything anybody can think of. As one looks over the list of items which compose this pile of used and new material, he finds almost everything—files and furniture, wheelbarrows and transport planes,

kerosene stoves and landing craft, clothing, cooking utensils, medical stores and equipment, canned food, bulldozers, electric motors. Name what you please, there is more than a fair chance that it is either available now or will be available before all surpluses are finally sold. Naturally, farmers are concerned with the way in which this land and equipment will be disposed of.

The Land

The land itself appears to fall into three general classifications: That which the Army and Navy retain for postwar military uses; that which has little or no agricultural value, and can serve national needs best if turned over to some public agency for forestry or conservation; and that which will be released for agricultural production. It would be economically undesirable to encourage or permit families to take up the submarginal land with the idea of establishing profitable farms. It would be even less desirable to sell this land to persons who, in turn, would sell it to farm seekers.

The Surplus Property Act of 1944 provides that agriculturally useful lands to be returned to private use shall first be made available for purchase by former owners in substantially the identical tracts which they sold to the Government. If a tract was occupied by a tenant at the time of sale, and if the former owner does not exercise his right to repurchase it,

the tenant will be given a chance to buy the tract he formerly occupied. Lands not repurchased by former owners or tenants will be "subdivided, whenever practicable, into economic family size units" and in the sale the veterans of World War II will be given preference.

Health Materials

The accumulation of assorted surplus goods interests farmers, not only for what it contains in the way of tools, supplies, and equipment whose uses on the farm and in the farmhouse are many, but also because of those items which can be used or adapted to use in the community to make the farmers' way of life more comfortable, efficient, and satisfying.

There is a vast stock of surplus medical equipment, for example, which if properly utilized can contribute greatly to the improvement and maintenance of rural health. For several years now, people in rural communities have been disturbed by the higher mortality from preventable diseases in the country than in urban areas. According to Selective Service records, farm youth showed as high rejection rates for physical, mental, and educational defects, as any other occupational group. Farmers all over the country are expressing a desire for more rural health services when possible.

The stockpile offers many items which may be used in attaining these ends. X-ray machines, operating tables, and many other items could contribute to increasing the efficiency of small hospitals that are already in existence and toward establishing others in areas that need them. With the aid of these medi-

Peace is respect for the rights of others.

—JUAREZ

In Common

We want the common man around the world who has felt . . . common suffering to know also a common healing and a common regeneration carried through . . . in a common spirit of international solidarity . . .

—TINGFU F. TSIANG

cal and surgical supplies, clinics could be set up in small towns and villages. Remote communities could be reached with mobile medical and dental units. Undoubtedly, the presence in many rural communities of such improved means for diagnosis and treatment would encourage more physicians to practice in areas which, up to now, have been inadequately supplied with either personnel or equipment.

Schools Concerned

Rural schools could benefit by buying at reasonable rates furniture and maps, and recreational, scientific, and other equipment. With this they could do a much better job, educationally and as social centers for their communities. Some schools might find it advantageous to buy machines and tools that could be used both for training students and for training farm boys and servicing farm implements and machines. Farmers throughout the country are interested in setting up such servicing and repair shops with good equipment where they can either have their work done or can do it

for themselves. This idea is particularly popular in those parts of the country where a great deal of light farm machinery is used.

Recreational Equipment

Country communities have long felt their lack of adequate recreational facilities—parks, playgrounds, swimming pools. Military surpluses should yield many items suitable for or adaptable to equipping country recreational centers. For example, surplus life-rafts might be obtained for centers where there is a lake or stream large enough for them. Swimming pools can be equipped with surplus pumps and water systems. Knock-down buildings can be made into excellent dressing rooms, storehouses, and shelters. The necessary grading and excavations can be taken care of with the surplus machinery, and grandstands for athletic fields can be erected from lumber bought from the stockpile.

Fire Apparatus

One of the great hazards of rural life is fire. Mobile fire-fighting equipment no longer needed by the Army would be valuable in most

rural areas and on large farms, while hand apparatus will be available for farm buildings, schools, and churches.

Auctions and Sales

If experience up to now is any criterion, farmers are greatly interested in getting possession of some of this equipment. Evidences come from the successful experiments in holding public auctions at several selected agricultural centers in various parts of the country. Here certain kinds of surplus items have been sold to the highest bidders, and farmers have been able to bid in a varied assortment of items, mostly used, at controlled prices. Recently a number of "spot" sales have been made to dealers, farm cooperatives, and others who are in a position to buy in wholesale quantities and distribute the goods in their communities. At these sales, items are sold in lots to the highest bidder, who must pay in cash and conclude the sale. The ultimate buyers are protected by a ceiling price on each item. It is planned to continue and to extend these spot sales as fast as surplus goods which can be handled this way become available.

Because of operations in the Pacific theater, until recently not many farm-type trucks were declared surplus by the military forces, but of those so made available, farmers obtained a large percentage. Through an emergency procedure worked out by the Surplus Property Board, the Department of Commerce, and the Department of Agriculture, critical farm needs are given top priority. When necessary transportation is inadequate, or other circumstances indicate the probability of impair-

ment in farm production in an area, the Secretary of Agriculture certifies the emergency to the Board. The Board may then order the Department of Commerce to sell trucks to dealers who agree to sell the trucks to farmers in that area who hold certificates issued by County AAA Committees. In addition, farmers have bought a large percentage of the trucks released to dealers through regular methods of surplus property disposal.

Huge Job

The task of getting all these surplus items into the hands of buyers is a heavy one, and farmers may well ask what measures will be taken to insure them a fair opportunity to get what they need. The Surplus Property Act demonstrates the Government's real awareness of the farmers' interests in equipment as well as in land. The law directs the Surplus Property Board "to devise ways and means" of selling surplus property in rural communities so as to give farmers and farmers' cooperatives "equal opportunity with others to purchase." The Board itself does no

Strength

Our aim should be not how much strain our strength can stand, but how great we can make that strength.

—FISHER and FISK

selling. It designates "disposal agencies" for that purpose. Nor does this mean that the disposal agency acts as a retailer, selling directly to farmers or other purchasers. The idea is to get the surplus goods into the hands of distributors in a community, while the final buyers are protected by price ceilings, so that they will have to pay no more than fair prices for the merchandise. Items serviceable to farmers will be distributed in farming areas, as they become surplus. Several million dollars' worth of items useful on farms have already been distributed in this way.

Still a Question

The quantity of goods that is overseas when it is declared surplus will have an effect. To crate, haul to dockside, and transport the great distance across the Pacific might prove to be so expensive for some time that it would not be economical to bring them home for sale at prices consumers would be willing to pay, for transportation costs across the Pacific are more than double those across the Atlantic. The problem involved is being studied by experts

in the Army and Navy, and their just findings will determine final quantities.

Obviously this is no ordinary selling job. In general it will not be practicable to issue catalogs itemizing everything that will go on sale and specifying where it can be bought. Many items will be offered for sale when they have passed their maximum usefulness. They will have to be repaired, rebuilt, or adapted to civilian use, either by the distributors or by the purchasers. Some unused items will be sold because they are obsolete, some because the armed services have stocks that are greater than their needs. Decisions determining what land and goods are surplus can seldom be made very far in advance.

The Fact Remains

For farm families the facts add up to this: for a considerable time to come, they should be able to buy, at attractive prices, an astonishing variety of good and useful articles for carrying on their operations and making their farms, their homes, and communities more comfortable and efficient.

The soldier knows . . . that in war the threat of separate annihilation tends to hold Allies together; he hopes we can find in peace a nobler incentive to produce the same unity.

—DWIGHT D. EISENHOWER

Future Use of Fertilizers

By W. F. WATKINS. *Past programs will be broadened in line with advances in knowledge and experience and the new policies will emphasize the place of fertilizers in the system of farming. Research, education, and action programs will be directed toward the desired objectives.*



FORGING a new fertilizer program, to be placed in operation after the war, is now in order, for the prewar program has been a partial casualty of the world conflict. New advances and experiences are shaping the outline of new policies.

The future cannot be judged solely by the past. Bases for the new program are at hand. We have an abundance of past experience covering many years and we have our noteworthy wartime records. The statements of fertilizer policy issued by the national farm organizations, the National Planning Association, the TVA, Land Grant Colleges, and a Department of Agriculture fertilizer policy committee, as well as proposed legislation—all signify an accelerated interest in a broadened and strengthened National fertilizer program for the coming years.

Recommendations, explicit or implied, that are found in the reports of these organizations point in the direction of an invigorated set of policies.

These objectives are readily summarized. They include (1) the use of fertilizers as an important factor

in the system of farming, (2) the use of fertilizers up to the quantity needed for efficient crop production, (3) the use of fertilizers to increase conservation of the land resources, (4) the use of fertilizer to improve the nutritional value of crops, (5) the production of adequate supplies of the most desirable kinds and grades of fertilizing material, (6) further increases in the plant-food content of materials, and (7) placing greater emphasis on research and education and the further development of effective demonstrations.

To attain these objectives is a primary concern of the postwar fertilizer program. The research and education of the U. S. Department of Agriculture, the Land Grant Colleges, the fertilizer associations, and the fertilizer industry, have been influential forces in the past as they will be in the future. Action programs have emphasized the application of fertilizers on conservation crops and they have influenced the wider use of fertilizer that is essential in attaining desirable levels of fertilizer consumption. This has been a good beginning in the direction we want to go.

As soon as conditions permit, expanded educational, demonstration, and action programs will be called for to make the new program definitely effective.

Integration

When conditions are reasonably normal individual farms should be studied in regard to the system of farming and soil fertility, and then a farsighted program should be visualized. Together, the farm plans will indicate the larger program for each area. Some critics have held that past fertilizer practices were destructive, because emphasis was placed on growing cultivated cash crops which increase soil erosion and soil destruction. This was not wholly true, but a postwar fertilizer program that emphasizes the use of fertilizer on the grasses and legumes as well as on the cash cultivated crops in the system of farming will have definite advantages.

Individual Farms

The individual farm plan is the basis for considering the fertilizer needs and use in efficient crop production. Eventually, each farmer must analyze his farm plan, study the land use and needs of each acre, and the needs of different crops. Then he can work out his fertilizer plan accordingly, not only for one year but for several, and it will be a part of the whole farm program. Farmers will need assistance and guidance in making these plans and in carrying them out. County agents, local fertilizer dealers, the township local committeemen, Smith-Hughes teachers, the officers

and leaders of farm organizations, and representatives of Federal and State action agencies—all must be reached in the preliminary educational work and together they will form an invaluable medium for reaching farmers and giving them the necessary assistance and advice.

At present most of the States have some practical fertilizer recommendations for efficient crop production that can be used as a starting point in developing necessary recommendations for an extensive program in the postwar period. Refinements will be necessary to fit the recommendations to soil types and systems of farming. More attention must be given to the kinds and quantity of fertilizer to be recommended for grass and legume crops—Federal and State agronomists have a real job to do in meeting this technical responsibility. They cannot work in a closed shop. To provide the right information and to train others is an essential part of their job.

Diversification

Proper use of fertilizers will permit successful growing of a number of crops. Frequently the reason for concentrating on single crops has been the low fertility of the soil and its inability to grow the other crops successfully in a diversified system of farming. The new policies, if well carried out, should mean the escape of many farmers from the tyranny of one-crop farming.

Experience in growing red clover in many midwestern States is an interesting demonstration of one kind of diversification that fertilizer makes possible. On many farms red clover began to fail so frequently

that it was dropped from the rotation, and corn silage or timothy was substituted for forage. But now, with the use of lime and phosphate, and potash fertilizer in some cases, it is being grown successfully on many of these farms again and a permanent productive system of farming has been re-established.

Supplementary

Under a desirable use program, the application of fertilizer supplements the plant food already in the soil. When the natural plant food is low, commercial fertilizer must provide most of the nutrients for plant growth; on the other hand, if the soil is already well supplied with plant food only a small supplementary application of fertilizer may be needed.

Costs

Prices that farmers must pay will influence decidedly the way fertilizer is used after the war. In considering the cost of fertilizers, a farmer will count not only the retail price but the additional expense of hauling to the farm, storing after he gets it there, and the costs of applying it to the land. Costs of handling large tonnages on a farm can become a major expense factor, especially where the rate of application per acre is high or where many acres are to be fertilized.

Technological advance and competition in the fertilizer industry have aided in supplying farmers with low-cost fertilizers. Progress has been made during the war, particularly in the production of material of higher analysis; these advances can be expected to reduce the cost of fertilizers

Unmeasured

Men's capacities have never been measured; nor are we to judge of what they can do by any precedents.

—HENRY THOREAU

still further. Manufacturing and distribution costs mainly relate to tonnage and are not influenced by the plant-food content. Savings can accrue as material is handled in bulk, thus reducing the cost of bags and bagging. The use of more materials as "simples" (individual materials) on grass and legume crops and a continuation, with improvement, of the limitation on the number of grades offered for sale will also reduce costs.

Food Values

Passing to another consideration there is the question of food values in relation to fertilizers. Knowledge is being accumulated on the differences in the food value of crops grown on different soil types and the usefulness of fertilizer in improving the nutritional value of crops. But the subject is still replete with unsolved problems. Apparently the possibilities are many. Experiments have demonstrated that the mineral content of some forage and other crops can be increased if fertilizer is applied to the soil. Thus fertilizers can make very real contributions to the livestock feed pro-

gram and provide more milk, butter, and meat for the human diet.

Present and future knowledge regarding the relation of climate, fertilization, and crop varieties will eventually have decided influence in the development of the nutritional phases of the program but it will take time to conduct the necessary experimental work, make the appraisals, and then obtain in actual practice any extensive application of the favorable factors in crop production looking toward the improvement of the nutritional value of human foods.

Rate of Application

The desirable level of use for efficient production of most crops after the war will require an increase in the rate of application of fertilizer per acre. In general, present rates are high for most vegetable crops and for crops that have a high per acre value. On crops like corn, small grain, and cotton, higher rates per acre than are usual would be advantageous. In addition, large acreages of crops are now grown without fertilizer where the only way the production can be truly efficient is through its use.

It has been estimated that, in 1942, fertilizer was applied to about 70 million acres of crops. Analysis indicates that at least 150 to 200 million acres of land could be efficiently fertilized each year. This would not mean that the tonnage of fertilizer used would increase in proportion to the increase in the acreage treated. The bulk of the increased acreage that should be fertilized, in a desirable use program, would not require a high rate of application per acre. But at the same time, there would

be an increase in the rate per acre on the acreage now fertilized.

All analyses so far made in an effort to learn the most desirable levels of fertilizer use point to a greater consumption than we have ever had. There can be argument as to the exact quantity that should be used, but this is not of importance at the moment in view of the fact that in all studies the direction is the same.

Area Differences

Some areas have been spending a larger percentage of the farm income for fertilizers than others; in 1935-39 this varied, for instance, from 0.05 percent in Iowa to 3.2 in Ohio, and 17.0 in South Carolina. Recently, the greatest percentage increases have taken place in areas that spend the smallest percentage of the farm income for fertilizer. There has been an unfilled demand of unknown quantity in the Midwest and in the Pacific Coast States. In a desirable use program the past relationship between farm income and expenditures for fertilizer by areas can and should change materially.

Expenditures for fertilizer have been largest on cash-crop and lowest on livestock farms, particularly those with forage crops. The importance of fertilizer and lime in connection with livestock systems of farming has been demonstrated and as the facts become well known the demand for fertilizer will increase. Needs on livestock farms will vary depending on the quantity of feed purchased and the care taken of farm manure. Livestock farming calls for a different fertilizer program than one applicable to grain and cash-crop systems of farming.

Questions

What about the supply of materials to meet a larger demand? We have encouraging answers. The development of synthetic-ammonia processes, the war plants already constructed to make it, and the probable imports of nitrate of soda from Chile should assure an adequate supply of nitrogen. Our deposits of phosphate rock are extensive and plant capacity for the production of superphosphate can be readily expanded in each area. Domestic resources of water-soluble potash are limited, but adequate supplies can be imported from Europe at reasonable cost.

What shall we do with the increased production that will come with the working out of the strengthened fertilizer program? That is a good question. But a better question is, Should the use of fertilizer be held at a low point and inefficient crop production continued? The food needs of a liberal diet will require a high level of agricultural production and a balance in the production of different crops.

There should be an increase in

the acreage and production of soil-conserving crops, some of which can be used for livestock feed. Other land can be used for soil-building crops which will result in higher yields per acre of cultivated crops, an important factor in efficient and quality production. The fertility built up from 1936 to 1940 through the agricultural conservation program has been of untold benefit in obtaining high yields and production levels, so needed since 1942.

Summarized Program

No one believes that the goals of best use will be attained in a year or two. The main job seems to be to exert effort to insure adequate supplies to meet the desired levels of use, then expand research, educational, and demonstration programs aggressively, and provide action programs based on technical facts that will reach all farmers. Cooperation of farmers, farm organizations, the fertilizer industry, Federal and State workers, will assure success. The direction is clear. Details can be worked out in progressive stages as we go forward.

One People

We are not a country of conflicting groups; there is hardly a household, hardly an individual, whose interests do not cross and overflow group boundary lines.

—CLINTON P. ANDERSON

Love of the Land

By BRISTOW ADAMS. *Yes, why not talk of it once in a while since it persists as a background if not as a basis to most of what we do for the improvement of the land and of the conditions of those who live on and by it.*



THERE'S no other word for it. Some folks may speak of land-mindedness, but that does not tell half.

Love of the land comes nearest to the sentiment that prompted the Polynesian saying: "The land is the only living thing. Men are mortal. The land is a mother that never dies."

Though all persons do not have a love of the land, anyone may have it, and be fully conscious of it. It is not the exclusive possession of the farmers nor of those who live in the country.

Nor do all farmers possess it. Some farmers, who perhaps do not deserve to be farmers, entirely lack affection for the soil they till and that helps to feed them. Others actually hate it with an unchanging hatred, and long for the day when they can be "shed of it." As a generality, never wholly true, the successful farmer has a genuine feeling for land. Yet some may love the land and not know how to treat it, affectionately or otherwise.

On the other hand, some city men and women have a strong sentiment for the land though they have never turned a sod—except perhaps with midiron or niblick—nor have they ever lived in the country, nor had immediate forebears who made a living from the soil. Such a man never wearies on a train journey

through our States wherever he may be. Watching from the window he appreciates the landscape to the full as it flows past. He not only admires it for its beauty—he senses its construction and its variety and its possibilities. He notes its very anatomy as well as its clothing, particularly as shown in late winter or early spring, where lingering snow accentuates land structure in shaded hollows or on north slopes.

He notes the changes in the landscape as the train leaves level areas of cultivated crops for rounded hills of pasture lands which in turn give place to groves of hardwood trees, with here and there a few hemlocks, until he reaches a summit covered by conifers. His eyes seek the mountain tops with their varying peaks, and he notes again, with never-ending surprise, how the whole scene appears to flatten when he views it from the crest.

Those who are conscious of their love for the land personalize it in their thoughts. They think and speak of the intimate charm of the farm lands of the northeast, of the austere and forbidding aspect of the Rockies, of the restfulness of desert solitudes.

This sentiment for the land, even among persons who give no other evidence of sentiment, sometimes

hinders the efforts toward rural rehabilitation and resettlement as those who have worked on these plans for rural betterment well know. Where a man has tilled the soil, even for a poor reward in crops or with constant threat from drought or overflow, he often has a feeling for his acres that makes him loath to leave them. When he turns up a row of potatoes on his own

farm he gets a thrill akin to that of the prospector who sees golden color amid the sands he washes.

Those who do not feel such an emotion in the course of their daily lives miss something that nothing quite replaces and that cannot be described to one who is insensate to the call of the soil, from which all life comes and to which all life returns.



Books

BIG DEMOCRACY. By PAUL H. APPLEBY. Alfred A. Knopf. New York. 197 pages.

NOT EVERYONE will agree with all that Mr. Appleby has to say in *Big Democracy* but all who read this book will be wiser about government and public administration. Some may deny that "within government and outside of government . . . the trend is toward bigness" but none will deny that "government has to do what it has to do." Those who do not want to believe will not be convinced that the bureaucrat is not sufficiently respected but there are few who will not be persuaded that government is quite different from private industry not only in the nature of its function but also in the type of personnel attracted, in the degree of accountability for all its acts, in the complexity of the job and in the need for superior administration. The value of this book is less in the slant of the arguments advanced than in the wisdom presented to support them.

Big Democracy is full of wisdom. This is not a discussion of the bare

mechanics of government but the reflections of the author on the fundamentals of the living governmental process. The book contains profound observations on leadership, on patronage, on relations between the executive branch and Congress and the people, on organization, on red tape. There is an important chapter on international administration. Mr. Appleby is incisive and provocative in his observations. He has thought much about his subject during his many years of service in highly responsible public positions. The wisdom and value of what he writes is exceeded only by his real contributions to better administration while he was a bureaucrat in the Department of Agriculture.

Big Democracy is for all who would know government better. It is a sophisticated book in the sense that the more experienced and wise the reader the more he will learn from it.

—Leon Wolcott

TIME FOR PLANNING: A SOCIAL-ECONOMIC THEORY AND PROGRAM FOR THE TWENTIETH CENTURY. By LEWIS L. LORWIN. Harper and Brothers. New York. 273 pages.

THE ROAD TO SERFDOM. By FREDERICK A. HAYEK. University of Chicago Press. Chicago. 250 pages.

THOSE who read Hayek's book should read Lorwin's as an antidote. Here are two mature students of economics who have written books on the same subject and have arrived at diametrically opposite conclusions. One is opposed to any effort to "plan progress" and calls it *The Road to Serfdom*; the other likes all kinds of planning including local, State, national, and international planning, and says that now is the time for more of it.

How can such well-trained men as these two authors seem to be disagreed so completely on such a basic issue? This reviewer finds at least an important part of the explanation in differences between their preconceptions as to what democracy is and ought to be. Hayek identifies democracy with the absence of "collectivism." Witness these lines: "It is often said that democracy will not tolerate 'capitalism.' If 'capitalism' means here a competitive system based on free disposal over private property, it is far more important to realize that only within this system is democracy possible. When it becomes dominated by a collectivist creed, democracy will inevitably destroy itself."

If by "collectivist creed" Hayek means the creed of trade unions, chambers of commerce, farm organizations, and the Democratic Party, then democracy was dead before it was born; it never existed and never will. In spite of his protest that he

is not advocating laissez faire, this passage and others in his book show that fundamentally he has little place in his economic preconceptions for collectivism of any kind, whether it be the Nazi or the American brand. Americans call the American brand of collectivism democracy, whether Hayek likes it or not.

And one can be excused for wondering whether he likes it too much, as indicated by these lines, "It may well be true that our generation talks and thinks too much of democracy and too little of the values it serves. It cannot be said of democracy that . . . It is itself the highest political end . . . Democracy is essentially a means for safeguarding individual freedom." Here Hayek clearly reveals his preconceptions—and they are very different from my own.

Democracy is both a means and an end. And as a means, it includes "collectivism" to safeguard individual freedom. Mine are the preconceptions of the late John R. Commons who held that from an economic point of view, the essential distinction between a democracy and a dictatorship (whether of the type of Hitler's and Mussolini's, or of any other kind) is to be found in the means employed for resolving conflicts of interest between classes and groups. Democracy resolves them by the peaceful and evolutionary process of collective bargaining; a dictatorship resolves them by force. To have a government which insists

on using collective bargaining instead of force is an end in itself—an end of the highest order.

Lorwin seems to have this same preconception, even if it is not expressed in these words. He seems to recognize economics more as a *process* than as an *equilibrium of forces*. As a *process* it is conditioned by custom and has historical roots. He would support Hayek's plea for the "rule of law." In fact, the real hope for democracy in England and America is to be found in the peoples' deep respect for the rule of law which has its roots in hundreds of years of Anglo-American jurisprudence. It is a system of common and statute law which recognizes individual duty as well as individual liberty. Its future does not depend upon the substitution of "individualism" for "collectivism."

Hayek seems to think that American collectivism is drifting inevitably towards Nazism or something worse. His evidence is that well-meaning "planners" in Europe fell into that trap. In my judgment, he underestimates the force of American tradition. We have dictatorship in America when the Army is used to suppress a strike—an event that is among the rarest occurrences in our economic life.

Lorwin recognizes that one of the greatest problems in National planning is that of reconciling group interests. He is not a "blueprint planner," but he sees a place in democracy even for blue prints. His is what he calls the "social-progressive" type of planning, as distinguished

from the "absolute socialist," "partial state socialist", or "voluntary business" types. He not only has a better understanding of what American democracy is, but he also sees more clearly the importance of planning as an essential technique for making it what it ought to be.

It will be hard to find anywhere a more realistic definition of American democracy than in Lorwin's Decalogue of Democracy. His analysis of the planning problem is brilliant, and should be read by all planners. Being an "expert" himself, he can be excused for having more faith in the ability of experts to reveal what is the "general interest" or the "general welfare" than this reviewer thinks they possess. Having been associated with an experiment in agricultural planning, I should like to have found in Lorwin's book just a little more about agricultural planning. He gives a full and effective discussion of "American Labor and National Planning."

In a sense it is unfair to include Hayek's book in the same review as Lorwin's, for Hayek himself makes no claim that his is anything but a "political" polemic. It is at least that. By way of contrast, Lorwin makes a real contribution to the understanding of a real and current problem. His approach is dispassionate and analytical. He sets up no straw men to knock over, makes no assertions about his objectivity, seeks to frighten no one, and directs his words to people who are competent to judge their validity.

—Bushrod W. Allin

It is better to light a candle than to curse the darkness.—Chinese Proverb

FOOD FOR THE WORLD. Edited by THEODORE W. SCHULTZ. University of Chicago Press, Chicago. 353 pages. (The Twentieth Institute of the Norman Wait Harris Memorial Foundation.)

HOW to get more and better food into the mouths of the underfed people of the world . . . This is in essence the problem presented in *Food for the World*. The idea that food should be produced and distributed with regard to human needs first found expression some 20 years ago in the work of the League of Nations. It was the theme-song of the Hot Springs Conference in 1943, and is a major objective in the plans for the proposed United Nations' Food and Agriculture Organization.

Feeding the world is not a problem of agriculture alone; it reaches over into many related fields, as nutrition and public health, economics, population studies, and international relations. Accordingly, the Twentieth Institute of the Harris Foundation was carefully planned to present the several aspects of the problem in proper perspective. Authorities in each of four fields discussed the issues which were then commented upon by a panel of participants. The entire proceedings have been welded together in able fashion by Dr. Schultz.

The contents of the book are grouped into six parts, leading off with a review of the food movement. The first organized efforts on an international scale had their beginning in the work of the League of Nations. Reports of the League's Mixed Committee were of particular significance because of emphasis on the "integrated approach," the principle underlying these Harris Foundation lectures. During the prewar years the food movement continued although nutrition knowledge ad-

vanced more rapidly than its application. It takes a war, however, to bring food into the foreground and during this war governments have intervened in production and consumption management as never before.

A discussion of population, an important facet in a long-time view of world food needs includes principles to be considered and concrete situations such as the effect of improved nutrition in a country like India where population already presses against food supply. The section on nutrition includes a brief review of advances in nutritional research and its relation to human welfare. The reader is told that the function of nutrition is "to discover, evaluate and make available facts which can be applied to the development of wise food practices." In the task of feeding the world the science of nutrition can play the role of technical consultant; it furnishes the basis for evaluating food supplies and for planning food programs. It sets the goals and it measures progress; hence, it deserves an important place in directing thought and shaping policy.

Several chapters on world food supplies point to the disparity between nutritional needs and food to meet them both in over-populated and food-deficit areas, and in countries like the United States where food could be abundant. Under demands of war an enormous food production potential has been demonstrated in many countries. Yet after the war there will still be underfed millions in some areas

while food surpluses will be almost certain in others unless national and international distribution schemes are devised. This point leads straight to the heart of a discussion of international relations, in which trade policies, commodity agreements and international organizations are examined.

In a book of this nature composed of separate segments, there is bound to be some repetition of facts and of ideas, just as there are at times widely divergent views. Herein lies part of its value, in the opinion of the reviewer. For there is no clear-cut and easy way to reach the objective. "Adequate food for all" may be a fine-sounding phrase to which we would all subscribe. But as one of the authors points out, it is necessary not only to consider the long-run objective but to shape short-run measures.

The importance of policy is stressed throughout. Before any programs can be set in motion there must be a clear understanding of the issues and their implications. What we decide to do about agricultural adjustments and underconsumption in this country is as much a part of the problem as our attitude toward foreign trade and international cooperation to raise consumption levels in other countries. A properly functioning Food and Agriculture Organization offers great possibilities for the development of an international food policy.

It is hoped that this book will be widely read. These are new ideas, broad horizons. We need this vision of the whole in order to make firm and sure the steps which will need to be taken in the very near future.

—*Esther F. Shipard.*

WORLD POPULATION IN TRANSITION. Edited by *KINGSLEY DAVIS*. Annals, American Academy of Political and Social Science. v. 237, January 1945. Philadelphia. 203 pages.

AS AN important symposium on world population prospects, this volume is a worthy companion to volume 188 of the Annals, *The American People: Studies in Population*, which has served well as a summary reference, and even as a textbook for students of population. In addition, the new volume's focus on the momentous shifts occurring in the growth, distribution, and composition of the world's population and implications of these shifts for future international problems mean that it should appeal to a far wider group than population technicians.

In the leading article, the editor reviews briefly the course of world population growth, by continents. The first real burst of world population growth came with the Industrial Revolution. From 1650 to 1940 the world's population increased from about a half billion to more than 2 billion persons, and at an accelerating rate of increase. If the rate of growth in world population between 1900 and 1940 were continued for 200 more years, there would be 21 billion inhabitants by then.

Dr. Davis believes, however, that the next century will see the peak of

the world's population growth reached and a new demographic balance spread throughout the world. This will mean a transition from an agricultural to an industrial regime, which cannot be made in many countries without dislocating and disorganizing great sections of the people. Modern knowledge must be used to make the transition as quick and smooth as possible by the development of a scientifically grounded population policy throughout the world.

Ten articles grouped under the heading "Regional Studies" provide for most of the regions of the world descriptions of the current population and prospects for future population changes. The authors vary in the degree to which they make predictions, but there seems to be rather general agreement that the populations of the United States and Western Europe will become a smaller and smaller proportion of the total population of the world.

The authors vary more in their appraisal of this prospect, as do those of the eight articles in the next section—"Aspects of Population Change." Some think this prospect is inevitable but believe its consequences a matter for speculation which only the future can verify. Another views the prospect of a stationary population achieved by Western countries as a definitive and humane solution to the pressure of population on the food supply and feels that other regions must follow this example or see the gains of technological progress dissipated in maintaining an ever-growing population at the minimum of subsistence.

The author who writes on China and Southeastern Asia concludes with a question, "Is it not time that we began to take account of this new differential in population and for the sake of expediency, if we are not moved by considerations of justice, began to plan a world in which we shall be a small minority with a diminishing proportion of the world's industrial power?" Others among these writers advise us in the United States to follow our birth and death rates with concern if we wish to see the position of our country maintained. One author feels that the more advanced countries have a common interest in the imposition of restraints upon the reproductive potentials of countries whose potentials are not now under control—"an interest which should find expression in any plan for world economic and/or political organization."

A final section on population policy reviews the measures nations have taken to increase or decrease their populations. In overpopulated areas, the author of this section thinks that the need for formulating and implementing realistic policies directed toward population control is general and urgent. For the advanced nations also, certain alternatives in population policy are discussed. This author concludes that special measures for maintaining fertility in these countries will have little effect unless (1) there is increased emphasis in the national culture on the value of family life and (2) there is effective assurance of full and constant employment.

—Margaret Jarman Hagood

Gratitude is the memory of the heart.—Massieu

THE FARMER AND THE REST OF US. By ARTHUR MOORE. Little, Brown & Company. Boston. 226 pages.

THIS IS a twentieth century tract, in the best sense, devoted to the proposition that "the farmer and the rest of us" are interdependent. It is an outgrowth of the realization that food will be indispensable so long as there are people, that unless we take thought our food-producing resources will decline, and that self-interest alone indicates to the farmer his concern for the welfare of his best customer—labor—and to labor its concern for the continuing welfare of the farmer. Though questions may be raised on minor points the book is good and should be widely read by farmers, laborers, white-collar urbanites, and their respective "leaders".

The author, for 10 years editor of the *Daily Pantagraph* of Bloomington, Illinois, who has never lived on a farm, writes with an intimate knowledge of the agricultural type he knows best. This type he regards as the American agricultural norm: The big-family-type, commercial Corn Belt farmer. But he recognizes both the wide range about that norm within the Corn Belt, and the tremendous variation of agricultural patterns within rural America.

To consistent readers of this magazine there are no strikingly new ideas here. Moore's acknowledgments indicate the general trend of his thinking: Liberty Hyde Bailey, John D. Black, E. G. Nourse, Anna Rochester, Theodore Schultz, Howard Tolley, among others. The outstanding virtue of this work is its persuasiveness in lines of argument not often phrased in such palatable form. Moore has no patience with plodding or colorless writers. Take,

for example, his scorn of those writers in agricultural economics who often take refuge "in the protective coloration of a Government scholar, hoping only to tell the truth so dully that no one would notice."

The book is filled with compact pungent passages, quotable in the extreme. Unreflecting browsers may not realize how solid and substantial is the fare. In addition to treating the more conventional phases, he deals boldly with such subjects as the role of farm organizations, the demoralization inherent in selfish lobbying activities, the function of farm-protest movements and the political pragmatism of farmers. His analysis leads him to stress the need for more vigorous, fearless, and effective social science research and adult education to deal with the fundamental problems of an enduring agriculture in an industrial society.

Fifteen chapters are devoted to diagnosis. The last chapters contain his prescription—and a plea for understanding. Concludes Arthur Moore:

1. The family farm must be dominant.
2. Group versus group strife must be resolved.
3. The land must be protected by a satisfactory rural life.
4. Adequate diet for all is the legitimate goal of agriculture.

The four would restore farming's faith in itself as a source of national strength. I believe them to be valid standards for any agriculture which is part of an industrial society . . .

The farmer can never maintain his place in an industrial society by his solitary efforts. When will the town, the city, and the capital understand what he means to American life?

—Edgar A. Schuler

THE HOPI WAY. By LAURA THOMPSON and ALICE JOSEPH, with a foreword by John Collier, Commissioner of Indian Affairs. University of Chicago Press, Chicago. 151 pages.

FOR MANY CENTURIES a settled, town-dwelling agricultural group has lived in the desert of the Southwest. These people developed one of the most advanced nonmetal-using cultures known to man. With rare inventive genius they developed dry-farming and irrigation methods which provided fairly sure and abundant crops. On the institutional side they developed a way of life that enabled them to survive and maintain their cultural integrity in an inhospitable desert environment and in the face of the militantly proselyting Spaniards, the warlike and land-hungry Navajos, and "The Americans."

This is the first of a series of studies initiated by the Indian Service under the leadership of John Collier, then Commissioner, and carried out in collaboration with the Committee on Human Development of the University of Chicago. The purpose is to help the Indian Service develop programs and administer Indian affairs in a way that will assist the Indians to develop a full and satisfactory life, maintain their cultural values and integrity, and at the same time incorporate things from the white man's culture.

The Hopi Way gives an excellent picture of Hopi life, beliefs, institutions, philosophy, and religion. More important, the reader is shown how these are interwoven to form the integrated Hopi culture. The reviewer knows of no book in which one can see better the *wholeness* or unity of a culture. This concept of cultural unity is exceedingly

important to administrators of programs which affect the lives of people whether they be Indians, whites, or Negroes—or if they be Germans, Japanese, or Americans. As John Collier points out in a foreword that should be read by all whose work involves carrying programs to people, "Does one seek to influence an individual or a group? Let him discover what is central to the being of that individual or group. Let his effort at influence be near to, and not deviate sharply from, the line of force of that which is central to the being of the individual or group. Thus, he may influence profoundly and helpfully. Remember that deep and central preoccupation, devotions and views of life can be helped to apply themselves to new practical ends. Here is the secret of efficient and democratic administration."

YET THIS CONCEPT of cultural unity is one of the most difficult to understand and it is still more difficult to apply administratively because it involves the necessity of fully understanding the culture of the group and seeing their problems as the people themselves see them. It requires the temporary setting aside of one's own values, beliefs, and practices—most of which seem naturally and universally true to us—and stepping into the cultural shoes of another group. For instance, it is reported that school attendance is low among the Hopi when school conflicts with ceremonials. One principal of a school for Indian citizens persuaded the village leaders to hold some of the

native ceremonials on week-ends. Apparently it did not occur to him to adjust the school days to fit the Hopi secular calendar.

This book is too complex and contains too many subtleties to be summarized in a short review. It calls for reading and study. The material is grouped in five sections: "The Web of Life" gives an excellent picture of the integration of the Hopi culture; "The Journey from Birth to Death" shows how the individual is adjusted to the culture and how he lives in it. Then there are "Some Young Hopi en Route," ten personality pictures; "Growing Up to be a Hopi," and "In Retrospect."

In some ways the section containing the personality sketches of young Hopi is both the most and least satisfactory. It is most satisfactory because it so well illustrates the diffi-

culty of bridging the gap between two divergent cultures. It is unsatisfactory because the authors have been unable to describe the young people in terms of the Hopi's own standards and values. They could not do so because the tools of analysis and language used are those developed within our own cultural matrix. A really good description is impossible unless the Hopi themselves develop a system of psychoanalysis evolved out of their own culture, and under those circumstances we probably would not understand it.

As a whole, the material is presented clearly and in a way that gives life to a subject that could have seemed heavy and unreal. The format is attractive and the excellent photographs provide added interest.

—Earl H. Bell

PLEASANT VALLEY. By LOUIS BROMFIELD. With drawings by Kate Lord. Harper & Brothers. New York. 302 pages.

PROSPECTIVE readers are cautioned that *Pleasant Valley* was not written for experts. But this is not right. The story of the building of Malabar Farm is a story for all friends of the land. This is true despite the money there was at hand to do the job. And it is true despite Bromfield's kicks at the shins of the U. S. Department of Agriculture. But USDA bureaucrats take some pats-on-the-back, too. So the thing to do is to rub our shins, because the book will leave those who read it with a healthier appreciation of good farmers and the land they work.

The story begins when Mr. Bromfield returns to Pleasant Valley which he once knew "as only a small boy can know a valley." After many years of writing elsewhere and some garden farming in France the author, when war clouds loomed in Europe, came back to secure for himself, his family, and friends and relatives who might eventually need help, a place on the land. To build Malabar Farm, he acquired three abandoned farms, none of which, according to the author, had been farmed well. First he hired an expert, an agricultural college graduate. Max Drake was to supply most

of the farm-management know-how and Mr. Bromfield the capital. Together, they worked out a farm plan.

The plan was simple. First, they were to rebuild the soil. The best soil had washed off the hills and the farms were marked deep with ugly scars and gullies. The soil-building program agreed upon—fertilizers, green manures, conservation farming, tree replanting—would warm the heart of conservationists. Next they were to remodel the barns for modern farm machinery. Whatever was sold off the farm “would have to be able to walk off.” The feed raised on the place would be fed and the animals marketed, leaving behind tons of manure to restore the land. The young manager and the master of Malabar did not always agree on the fine points of farm management. Mr. Bromfield wanted to make the farm nearly self-sufficient. And that’s about what it is today.

But it is in describing the animals he has had both in France and at Malabar “who think they are people” that the author is writing his Sunday best. All the animals of the farm—the wild and those who belong in the family—are welcome and they know it.

A substantial contribution is the good word for the dreams of the

many who want a spot in the country. Mr. Bromfield believes that more Americans will turn away from our cities to obtain at least a small place on the land. In the rings of open country around our great cities he sees more real security and satisfactory living than can ever be had in a city apartment. And he is probably right.

This book has one note definitely off key. And anyone who knows farming in the United States—the good and bad—will recognize it and be disappointed. The continued reference to American farmers as being soil destroyers is unfair and certainly not in line with all of the facts. We have many poor farmers, but soil alone has not made it possible for the United States to become probably the greatest agricultural nation in the world.

Not all books are improved by sketches. This one is. The drawings by Kate Lord of cattle in the barns and fields, the farm in winter, freshly plowed fields, the creeks and hills, the big house, the flowered walks and walls, the sugar camp, and the beehives make it possible for the reader to visit Malabar Farm while enjoying this book in an easy chair. All in all, it is pleasant reading.

—Gus Larson

There is no true liberty for the individual except as he finds it in the liberty of all. There is no true security for the individual except as he finds it in the security of all.

—EDWIN MARKHAM

BEHOLD OUR GREEN MANSIONS. By *RICHARD H. D. BOERKER*. University of North Carolina Press. Chapel Hill, N. C. 313 pages.

"GOD HAS LENT us the earth for our life. It is a great entail. It belongs as much to those who are to come after us as to us, and we have no right, by anything we do or neglect, to involve them in any unnecessary penalties, or to deprive them of the benefit which was in our power to bequeath."

Mr. Boerker has taken these words of John Ruskin for his theme. We must handle our forests for the maximum benefit to ourselves and to those who come after us. He apparently is not any too confident that individual owners of forest land are going to live up to their obligations to posterity without some prodding. With profit as the basic incentive, exploitation of the forest resource is too likely to be wasteful. "The history of forestry," he says, "shows that the role of Government is at first merely persuasive and educative. Economic and industrial development in a country may later require restrictive measures and the exercising of police functions. The final stage which has come about in many European countries, evidently because the other two methods have failed, is that of direct Government ownership and management."

In this country, however, he is willing to settle for something like 50-percent public ownership of our forest lands ("the nature of the forestry business makes this inevitable") and for "certain simple restrictions on timber cutting and forest land management." The Federal Government, he believes, should take an active lead in promoting good forest practice, but there will

always be a definite place for State forestry, community forestry, and private forestry.

But this book is not primarily a treatise on national forestry policy. It is, as the subtitle says, "A Book About American Forests." A tremendous amount of factual information is packed between the two bright-blue covers. The book describes the nature and extent of forest resources of the United States, and the relation of forests to recreation, wildlife, water supply, flood control, agriculture, and soil conservation. The many products of the forest are discussed, and the part forests play in livestock production. Chapters tell about fire and its control, about insect enemies of the forest and tree diseases, the history of governmental forest work, the development of the National Forest system, the progress of the States in forestry matters, forestry problems in the Southern States, and economic factors in private forestry. The book is well illustrated.

The author bit off a large subject, and has done well by it. He is an experienced forester who has published several volumes. This book should be helpful background reading for students of civics, economic geography, and conservation—as was presumably intended. It will be as helpful to anyone else who wants to know about the forest situation, the problems involved in the development of forest-resource conservation policy, and the importance of forests to national welfare.

—C. E. Randall

WORLD GRAIN REVIEW AND OUTLOOK, 1945. By HELEN C. FARNS-
WORTH and V. P. TIMOSHENKO. Statistical appendix by
ROSAMOND H. PIERCE. Stanford University, California. 319
pages.

THIS IS an experiment by the Food Research Institute, as a form of continuing the publication of information regarding world grain crops. The periodical, *Wheat Studies*, has been discontinued; the directors of the Institute have not yet decided upon the character and form of publication to replace it. This experimental volume deals primarily with wheat but surveys data with reference to rye, rice, and several feed grains. It concentrates on the 1943 and 1944 crops but gives a perspective of changing conditions since 1929, with prospects for the crop year 1945.

There is a valuable summary of effects of the war upon production, trade, prices, and consumption of grains. Nowhere can the reader find as brief and comprehensive documentation of Government actions in the several countries regarding grains and what they have accomplished. The digest regarding 1944 supplies and prospects for 1945 provides a background for appraising current conditions. Forecasts are not attempted, but a summary of conditions that will determine seedings in 1945 and prospective demands for grains provides a substantial basis for developing programs for the year.

The needs and prospective relief in continental Europe are considered. Reported data indicate a smaller decline in production in 1944 than might have been expected. The conclusion is that bread consumption in continental Europe, west of the pre-1939 frontier, will be lower in 1944-45 than last year and the decline can-

not be compensated for by larger consumption of other foods. The supply of bread grains in Russia improved in 1944.

Perspective is emphasized. It is gained by statistical data, charts, and discussion of Government policies and other factors influencing production and consumption. One chapter outlines the development of grain controls since the 1930's, policy commitments, and prospects for transition and postwar trade.

The conclusions cannot be summarized in a sentence. Perhaps for us the most significant statement is that "the postwar export movement of wheat from North America will probably not be large enough to bring substantial relief from the sizable wheat surpluses likely (barring crop disasters) to be held at the end of the war by Canada and the United States." In a discussion of policy considerations, it is suggested that the United States discontinue the costly policy of supporting domestic wheat prices above the international level, and let the domestic market adjust to the international market, to be associated with temporary farm relief and a long-time adjustment program for farmers dependent upon wheat.

In response to the authors' request for suggestions, this reviewer recommends the continuation of annual world grain reviews, inclusion of more data regarding importing countries and other grains in the excellent tabular material, and further development of data and analysis as to consumption of breadstuffs and alternative uses of the grains.

—O. C. Stine

AMERICA'S NEW OPPORTUNITIES IN WORLD TRADE. Planning Pamphlet No. 37-38. FERTILIZERS IN THE POSTWAR NATIONAL ECONOMY. No. 42. A FOOD AND NUTRITION PROGRAM FOR THE NATION. No. 46. National Planning Association. Washington.

IMPORTANT problems of the postwar world receive detailed treatment in these reports. The pamphlet on foreign trade reviews America's place in world trade, pointing out that we still adhere to the foreign-trade and investment policies of our non-industrial and debtor period, a practice which "serves to prevent foreigners from paying their financial obligations to us, to depress our own export opportunities, and to depress the world's trade level in general." But the United States, now a creditor nation, has no alternative but to "furnish a volume of outgoing exchange through imports which will balance its financial claims upon other nations." The report presents a foreign-trade budget for 1950 which, while it is stated to be capable of achievement, is intended primarily as a framework around which to build an adequate foreign-trade policy geared to modern needs.

The second pamphlet surveys the fertilizer situation, emphasizes the usefulness of fertilizers as a yardstick in measuring farm income, and covers such subjects as consumption, prices, demand, resources and their utilization, foreign trade, and domestic production and capacity. Among points evolved from the survey are: (a) wholesale and retail prices have been reasonable; (b) at least 10 million additional tons could be used efficiently if a demand for more production existed; (c) United States supplies of nitrogen and phosphates are very large, but

proven potash resources are very small; (d) our capacity to produce nitrogen, phosphoric acid, and potash is above probable commercial demand even should farm income remain at a high level. The national fertilizer policy developed by the NPA Agriculture Committee on the basis of this survey provides, among other things, for control by private industry (including farm co-operatives) of commercial production and distribution of fertilizer material; duty-free imports of fertilizer material; duty-free imports of fertilizers, limitation of subsidies for the use of fertilizers to soil-conservation practices, and stimulation to fertilizer consumption in the shape of measures to insure a continuing high farm income and an intensified research and educational program.

The third pamphlet represents an attempt to help lay the groundwork for a continuing effort to raise our nutritional level. The first desirable goal is to raise the diets of the most poorly fed people to a moderate level. Measures proposed are "partly individual or private, partly group or organization, and partly public or governmental," requiring the planned cooperation of a long list of proposed participants. Recommendations include intensive international nutritional planning through the Food and Agriculture Organization, and establishment by the President of a committee to study the administration of the Government's part in the program.

—Catherine C. Carmody

Peace, like liberty, requires constant devotion and ceaseless vigilance. It requires willingness to take positive steps toward its preservation. It requires constant cooperation among the nations and determination to live together as good neighbors in a world of good neighbors. Peace requires an acceptance of the idea that its maintenance is a common interest so precious and so overwhelmingly important that all differences and controversies among nations can and must be resolved by resort to pacific means.

—CORDELL HULL

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